

Advanced Predictive Modeling

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Plan for Upcoming Lectures

- Lecture 1:
 - Regression -> classification -> Bayesian networks
- Lecture 2 (this class):
 - Rational decision making
- Lecture 3:
 - Sequential decision making

Recall: Bayesian Network (BN)

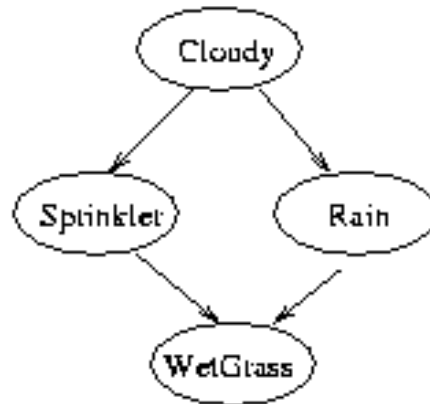
- **Graphical models** provide visual explanatory power in modeling real world problems
- BN is a **directed acyclic graph** that represents **causality** among a set of random variables
 - Nodes: random variables, each with an associated probability function
 - Edges: represents conditional dependencies between nodes
- Specifies a complete **joint probability distribution** over all the variables in the model
- Answers possible inference queries by **marginalization**

Recall: Weather Example

$$\Pr(C): \frac{P(C=F) \quad P(C=T)}{0.5 \quad 0.5}$$

$\Pr(S|C):$

C	$P(S=F)$	$P(S=T)$
F	0.5	0.5
T	0.9	0.1



$\Pr(R|C):$

C	$P(R=F)$	$P(R=T)$
F	0.8	0.2
T	0.2	0.8

$\Pr(W|S,R):$

S	R	$P(W=F)$	$P(W=T)$
F	F	1.0	0.0
T	F	0.1	0.9
F	T	0.1	0.9
T	T	0.01	0.99

Complete joint distr.:

$$\Pr(C,S,R,W) = \Pr(C) * \Pr(S|C) * \Pr(R|C) * \Pr(W|S,R)$$

How to Make Decisions?

- Choose an **action**
 - Estimate future **consequences**
 - Based on our beliefs of the world
- Bayes nets enable us to maintain beliefs of the world via **probabilistic inference**
- *Next*: modeling consequences and selecting actions

Probabilistic Inference

- Formally:
 - Given a prior distribution Pr over some variables (represents degrees of belief over variables)
 - Given new evidence $E = e$ for some variable E
 - Revise your degrees of belief to get the posterior distribution, Pr_e

Probabilistic Inference

- Formally:
 - Given a prior distribution Pr over some variables (represents degrees of belief over variables)
 - Given new evidence $E = e$ for some variable E
 - Revise your degrees of belief to get the posterior distribution, Pr_e
- Intuition:
 - How do your degrees of belief change as a result of learning $E = e$?
(or more generally, $E = e$, for set \mathbf{E})

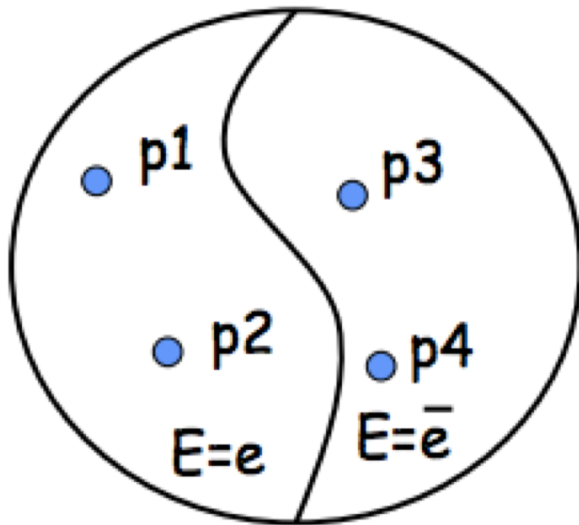
Conditioning

- We define:

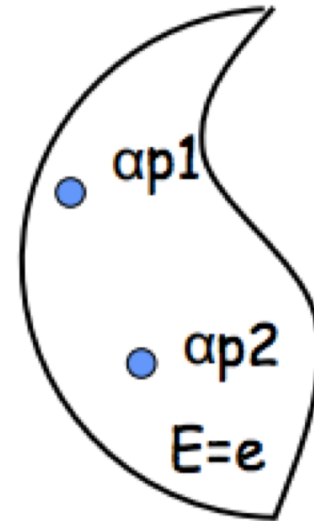
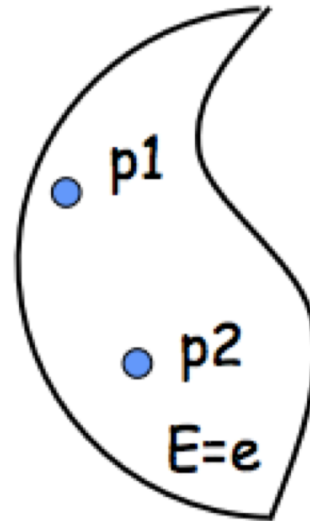
$$Pr_e(a) = Pr(a | e)$$

- That is, we produce Pr_e by conditioning the prior distribution on the observed evidence e

Semantics of Conditioning



Pr



Pr_e

$\alpha = 1/(p1+p2)$
normalizing constant

Computational Bottleneck

- How do we specify the full joint distribution over a set of RVs X_1, \dots, X_n ?
- Inference in this representation is frightfully slow

Computational Bottleneck

- How do we specify the full joint distribution over a set of RVs X_1, \dots, X_n ?
 - Exponential number of possible worlds
 - These numbers are not robust/stable
 - These numbers are not natural to assess
- Inference in this representation is frightfully slow

Computational Bottleneck

- How do we specify the full joint distribution over a set of RVs X_1, \dots, X_n ?
- Inference in this representation is frightfully slow
 - Must sum over **exponential** number of worlds to answer query $Pr(a)$ or to condition on evidence e to determine $Pr_e(a)$

Consider Headache Example

	sunny		~sunny	
	cold	~cold	cold	~cold
headache	0.108	0.012	0.072	0.008
~headache	0.016	0.064	0.144	0.576

$$\Pr(\text{headache}) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.072 + 0.008 = 0.2$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(\text{headache} \wedge \text{cold} | \text{sunny}) &= \Pr(\text{headache} \wedge \text{cold} \wedge \text{sunny}) / \Pr(\text{sunny}) \\ &= 0.108 / (0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064) = 0.54\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(\text{headache} \wedge \text{cold} | \sim \text{sunny}) &= \Pr(\text{headache} \wedge \text{cold} \wedge \sim \text{sunny}) / \Pr(\sim \text{sunny}) \\ &= 0.072 / (0.072 + 0.008 + 0.144 + 0.576) = 0.09\end{aligned}$$

Practical Solution

- How to avoid these two bottlenecks?
 - No solution in general
 - In practice, we will **exploit structure**
- Use independence and conditional independence assumptions

The Value of Independence

- Complete independence reduces both representation of joint distribution and inference from $O(2^n)$ to $O(n)$
- **Unfortunately**, complete independence is very rare
 - Most realistic domains don't exhibit this property
- **Fortunately**, most domains exhibit a fair amount of conditional independence
 - Can exploit conditional independence for representation and inference too
 - **Bayesian networks** do just this

Exploiting Conditional Independence

- Consider the following story:
 - If Bowen woke up too early (E), she needs caffeine (C)
 - If Bowen needs caffeine, she's likely to be grumpy (G)
 - If she is grumpy, then her lecture won't be as good (L)
 - If the lecture doesn't go smoothly, then students will be disappointed (S)



E = Woke up too early

C = need caffeine

G = gets grumpy

L = lecture not smooth

S = students disappointed

Conditional Independence

- If you learned any of E,C,G,L, would your assessment of $\Pr(S)$ change?



E = Woke up too early

C = need caffeine

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L = lecture not smooth

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Conditional Independence

- If you learned any of E,C,G,L, would your assessment of $\Pr(S)$ change?
 - If any of E,C,G,L are true, you would increase $\Pr(s)$ and decrease $\Pr(\sim s)$
 - Therefore, S is not independent of E,C,G,L



E = Woke up too early

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Conditional Independence

- If you knew the value of L (true or false), would learning the value of E, C, or G influence your assessment of $\Pr(S)$?



E = Woke up too early

C = need caffeine

G = gets grumpy

L = lecture not smooth

S = students disappointed

Conditional Independence

- If you knew the value of L (true or false), would learning the value of E, C, or G influence your assessment of $\Pr(S)$?
 - Influence that E, C, G has on S is mediated by L
 - E.g. Students aren't disappointed because Bowen is grumpy, it's because the lecture wasn't smooth
 - So S is independent of E, C, G, given L



E = Woke up too early

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Conditional Independence

- We have: S is independent of E, C, G , given L
- Similarly:
 - L is independent of E, C given G
 - G is independent of E given C
- This translates to:
 - $\Pr(S | L, G, C, E) = \Pr(S | L)$
 - $\Pr(L | G, C, E) = \Pr(L | G)$
 - $\Pr(G | C, E) = \Pr(G | C)$
 - $\Pr(C | E)$ % doesn't simplify further
 - $\Pr(E)$ % doesn't simplify further



E = Woke up too early

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Conditional Independence

- Specifying the full joint distribution $\Pr(S,L,G,C,E)$:



E = Woke up too early

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Conditional Independence

- Specifying the full joint distribution $\Pr(S,L,G,C,E)$:
- By the chain rule:
$$\Pr(S,L,G,C,E) = \Pr(S|L,G,C,E)\Pr(L|G,C,E)\Pr(G|C,E)\Pr(C|E)\Pr(E)$$



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Conditional Independence

- Specifying the full joint distribution $\Pr(S,L,G,C,E)$:
- By the chain rule:
$$\Pr(S,L,G,C,E) = \Pr(S|L,G,C,E)\Pr(L|G,C,E)\Pr(G|C,E)\Pr(C|E)\Pr(E)$$
- By our independence assumptions:
$$\Pr(S,L,G,C,E) = \Pr(S|L)\Pr(L|G)\Pr(G|C)\Pr(C|E)\Pr(E)$$
- The full joint is specified by 5 **local conditional distributions!**



E = Woke up too early

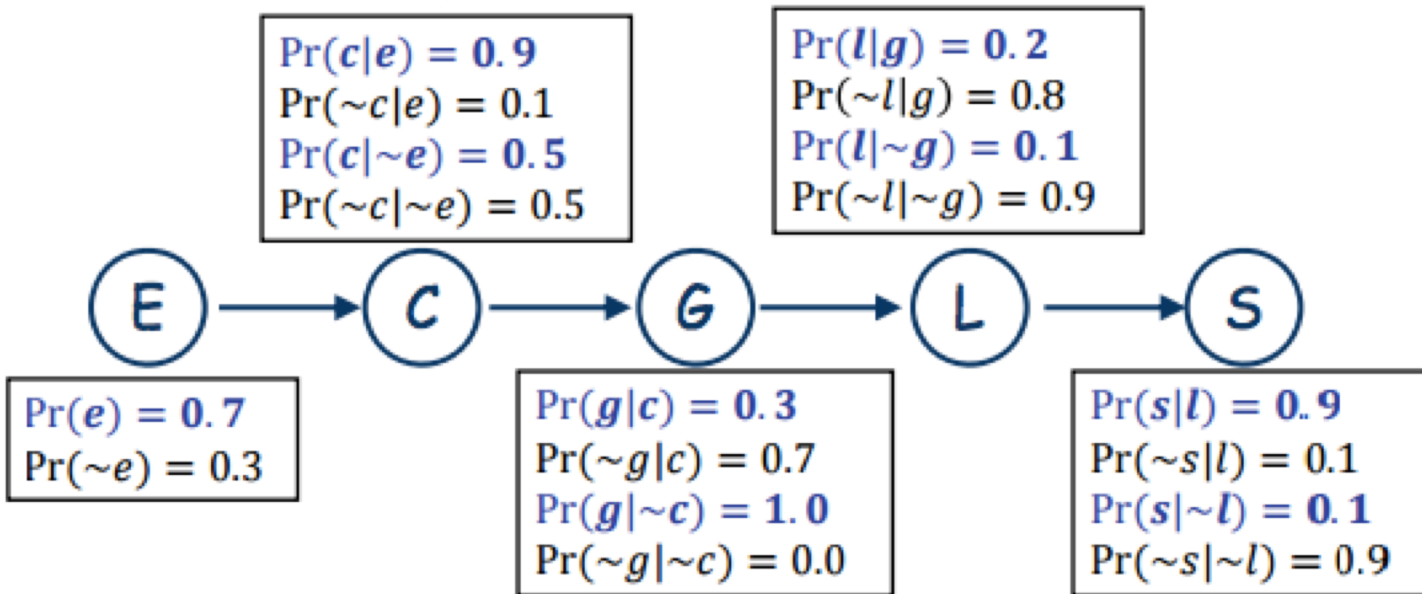
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Example Quantification



- Specifying the joint requires only 9 parameters!
 - Instead of 31 ($= 2^5 - 1$) for explicit representation

Inference is Easy

- How to compute $\Pr(g)$?



E = Woke up too early

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Inference is Easy

- How to compute $\Pr(g)$?
 - Apply the sum-out rule

$$P(g) = \sum_{c_i \in \text{Dom}(C)} \Pr(g | c_i) \Pr(c_i)$$
$$= \sum_{c_i \in \text{Dom}(C)} \Pr(g | c_i) \sum_{e_i \in \text{Dom}(E)} \Pr(c_i | e_i) \Pr(e_i)$$

Terms available in our local distributions!



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Inference is Easy

- Concrete example to compute $\Pr(g)$:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(c) &= \Pr(c|e)\Pr(e) + \Pr(c|\sim e)\Pr(\sim e) \\ &= 0.8 * 0.7 + 0.5 * 0.3 = 0.78\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(\sim c) &= 1 - \Pr(c) \\ &= 0.22\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(g) &= \Pr(g|c)\Pr(c) + \Pr(g|\sim c)\Pr(\sim c) \\ &= 0.3 * 0.78 + 1.0 * 0.22 = 0.454\end{aligned}$$



E = Woke up too early

C = need caffeine

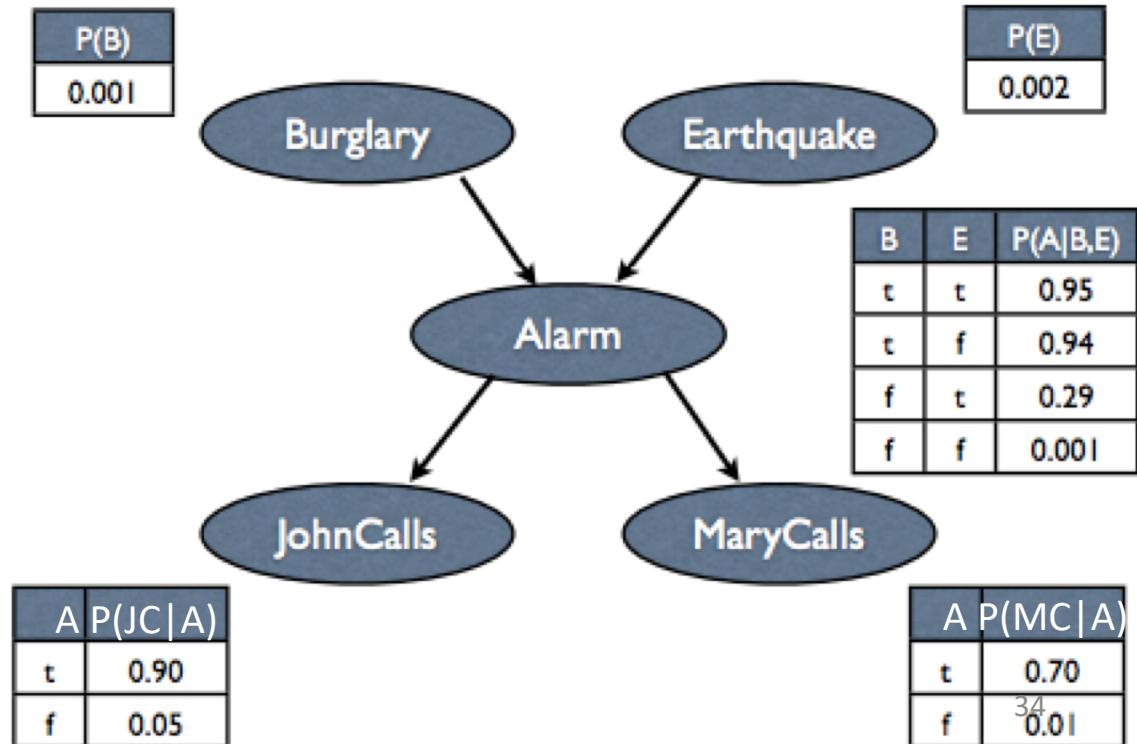
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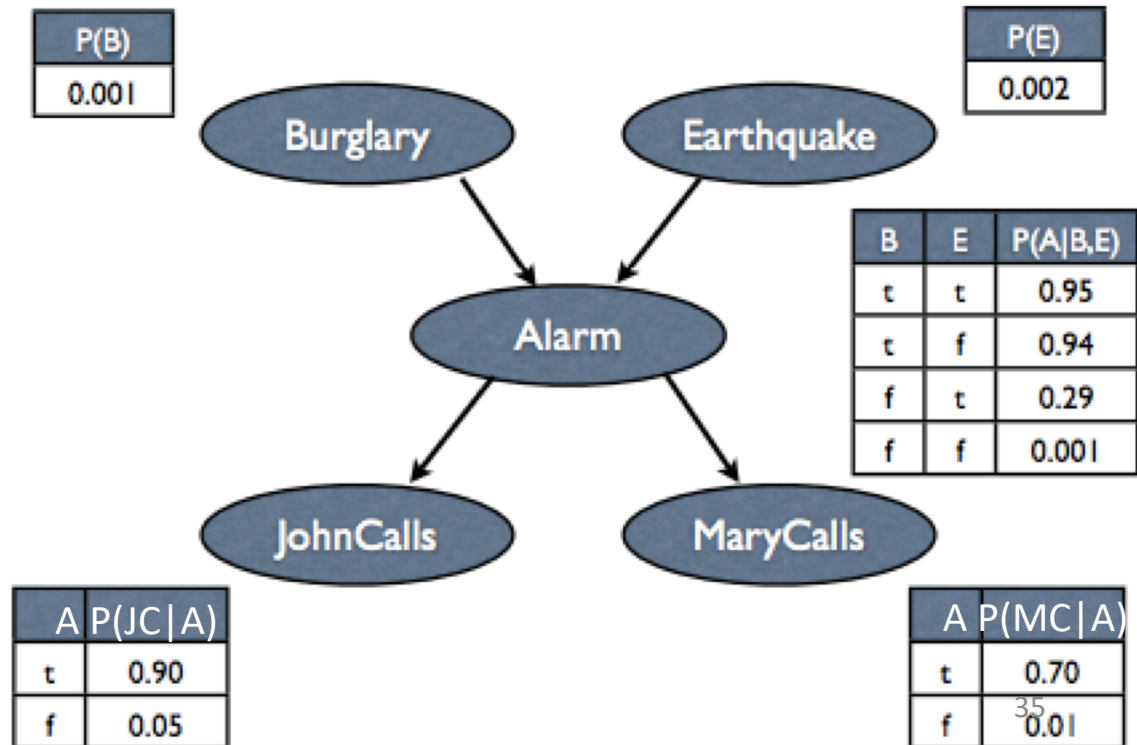
BN Example #3

- Burglary network (from J. Pearl)
 - Burglary = burglary occurs at your house
 - Earthquake = earthquake occurs at your house
 - Alarm = alarm goes off
 - JohnCalls = John calls to report the alarm
 - MaryCalls = Mary calls to report the alarm



BN Example #3

- Compute an entry in the joint distribution:
 $\Pr(B=t, E=f, A=t, MC=t, JC=f)$
 $= ?$



BN Example #3

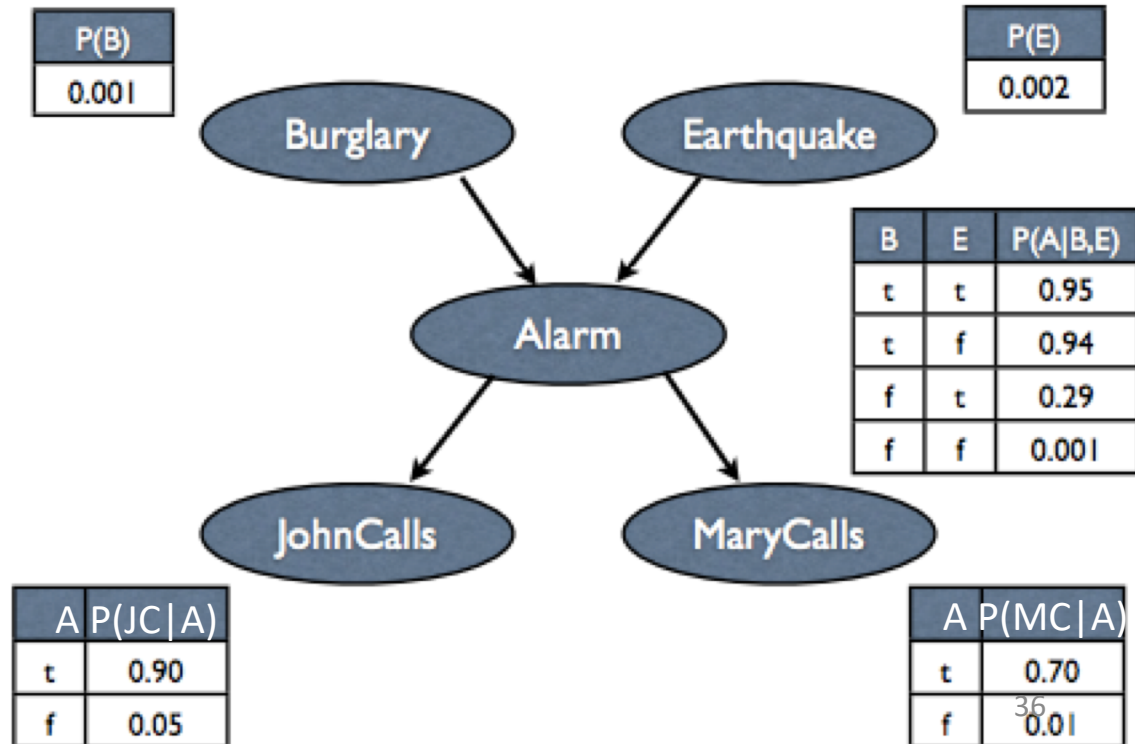
- Compute an entry in the joint distribution:

$$\Pr(B=t, E=f, A=t, MC=t, JC=f)$$

$$= \Pr(B=t)\Pr(E=f)\Pr(A=t | B=t, E=f)\Pr(MC=t | A=t)\Pr(JC=f | A=t)$$

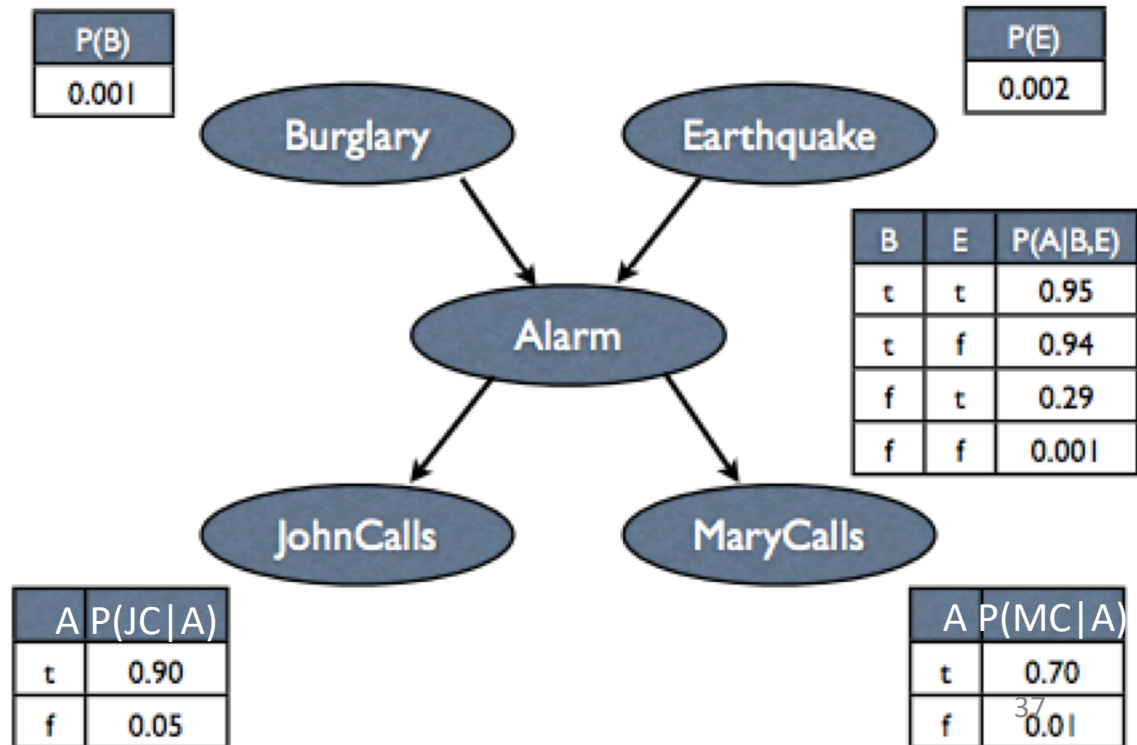
$$= 0.001 * (1-0.002) * (0.94) * (0.70) * (1-0.90)$$

$$= 0.0000656684$$



BN Example #3

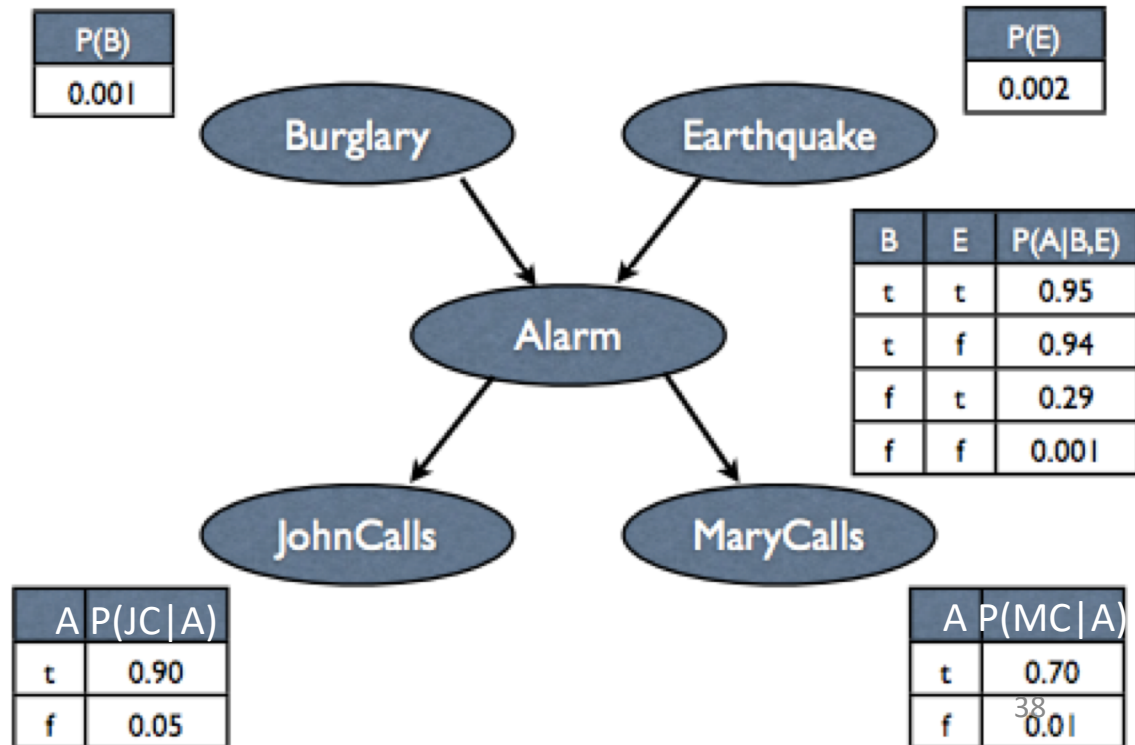
- Compute the marginal probability that Mary calls
 $\Pr(\text{MC}=\text{t}) = ?$



BN Example #3

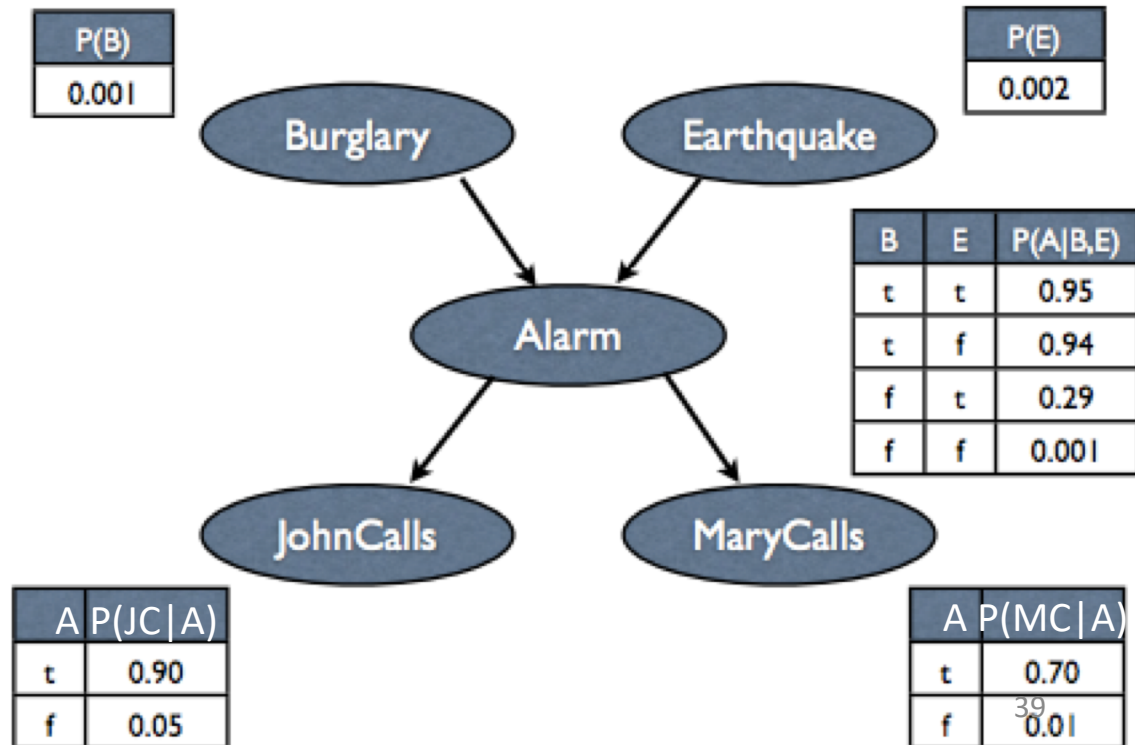
- Compute the marginal probability that Mary calls

$$\Pr(MC=t) = \sum_{B,E,A,JC} \Pr(MC = t, B, E, A, JC) = \dots$$



BN Example #3

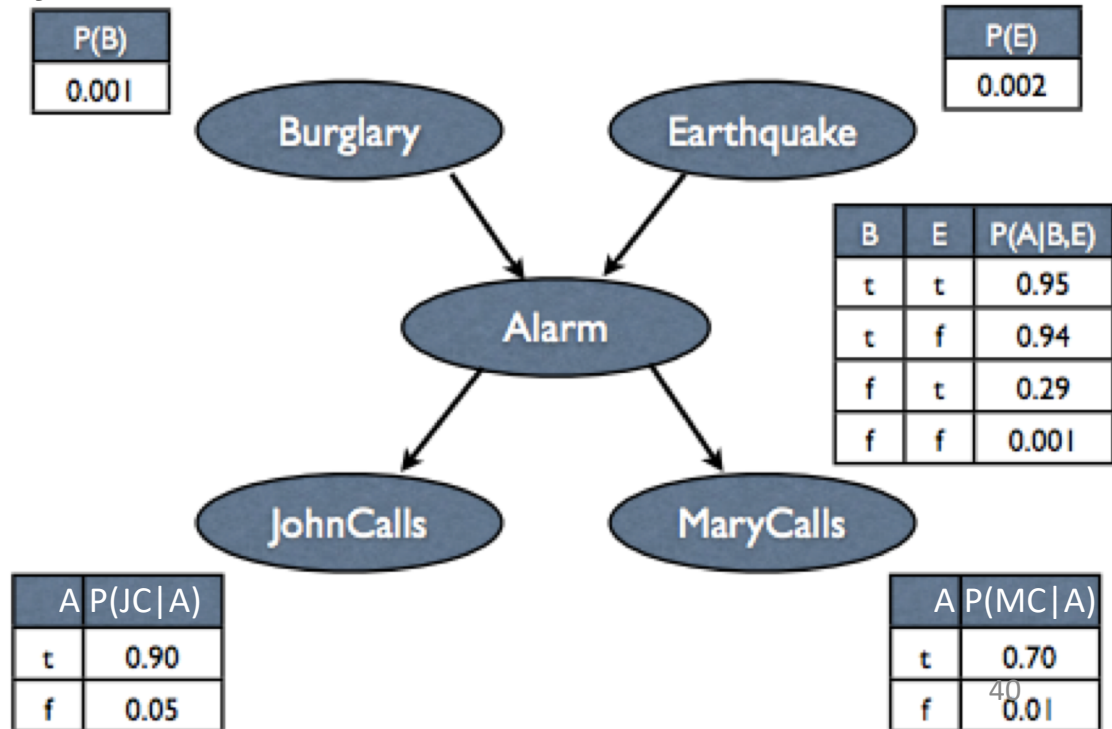
- Making a **prediction** given evidence **upstream** in the graph
- E.g. $\Pr(\text{MC}=\text{t} \mid \text{B}=\text{t}) = ?$



BN Example #3

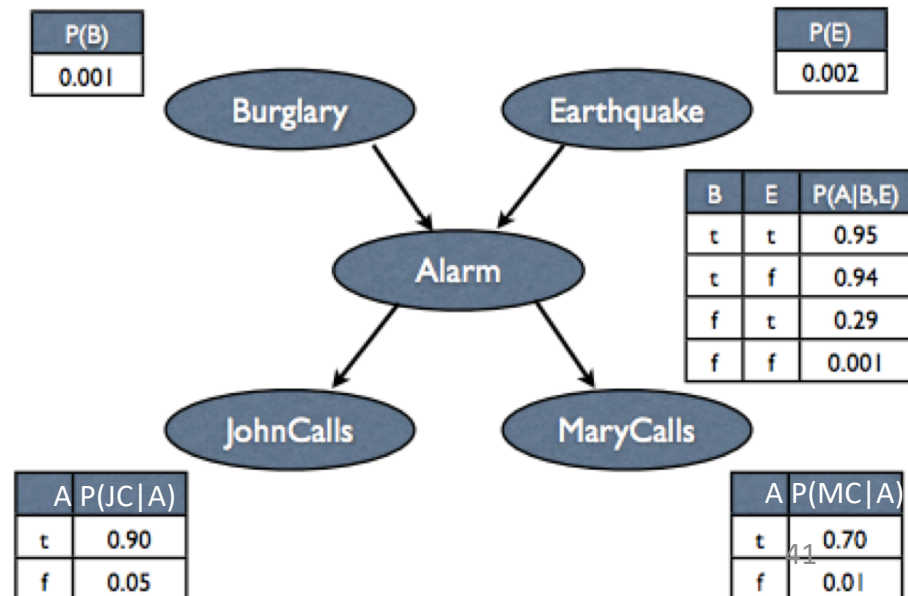
- Making a **prediction** given evidence **upstream** in the graph
- E.g. $\Pr(MC=t \mid B=t)$

$$= \frac{\Pr(MC=t, B=t)}{\Pr(B=t)} = \frac{\sum_{E,A,JC} \Pr(MC = t, B = t, E, A, JC)}{\sum_{E,A,JC,MC} \Pr(B = t, E, A, JC, MC)} = \dots$$



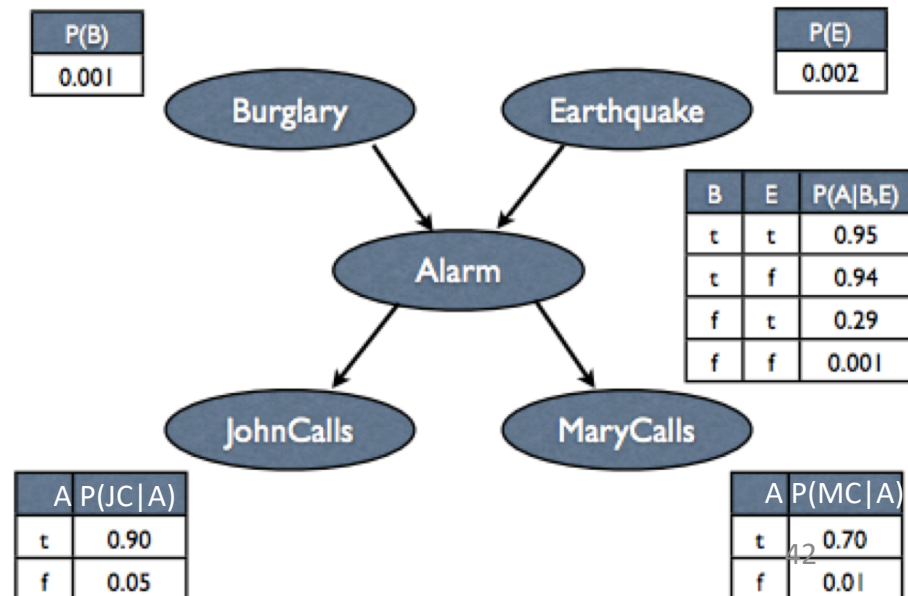
BN Example #3

- Finding an **explanation** given evidence **downstream** in the graph
- $\Pr(B=t \mid MC=t) = ?$
- $\Pr(E=t \mid MC=t) = ?$



BN Example #3

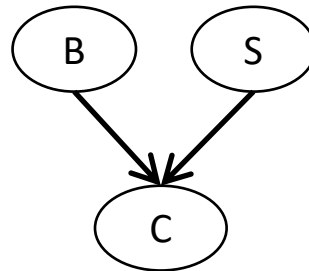
- Finding an **explanation** given evidence **downstream** in the graph
- $$\Pr(B=t \mid MC=t) = \frac{\Pr(MC=t \mid B=t)\Pr(B=t)}{\Pr(MC=t)} \dots$$
- $$\Pr(E=t \mid MC=t) = \frac{\Pr(MC=t \mid E=t)\Pr(E=t)}{\Pr(MC=t)} \dots$$



BN Example #4

- Suppose a college admits students who are either brainy (B) or sporty (S) or both.
- Let C denote the event that someone is admitted to college.
- Suppose in the general population that B and S are independent.

$\Pr(\sim B)$	$\Pr(B)$
0.5	0.5



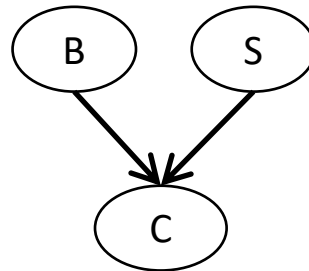
$\Pr(\sim S)$	$\Pr(S)$
0.5	0.5

		$\Pr(\sim C B,S)$	$\Pr(C B,S)$
$\sim B$	$\sim S$	1	0
B	$\sim S$	0	1
$\sim B$	S	0	1
B	S	0	1

BN Example #4

- As it turns out, looking at population of college students (those for which C is observed to be true)
- It will be found that being brainy makes you less likely to be sporty and vice versa!
- Because either property alone is sufficient to explain the evidence on C

$\Pr(\sim B)$	$\Pr(B)$
0.5	0.5



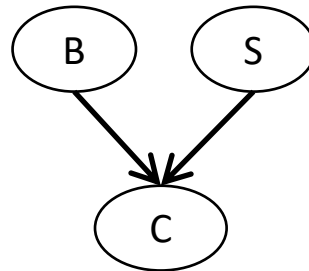
$\Pr(\sim S)$	$\Pr(S)$
0.5	0.5

		$\Pr(\sim C B,S)$	$\Pr(C B,S)$
$\sim B$	$\sim S$	1	0
B	$\sim S$	0	1
$\sim B$	S	0	1
B	S	0	1

BN Example #4

- i.e. $\Pr(S=\text{true} \mid C=\text{true}, B=\text{true}) \leq \Pr(S=\text{true} \mid C=\text{true})$
and $\Pr(B=\text{true} \mid C=\text{true}, S=\text{true}) \leq \Pr(B=\text{true} \mid C=\text{true})$
- This is known as the **explaining away** phenomenon
 - Happens when two causes “compete” to explain the observed data

$\Pr(\sim B)$	$\Pr(B)$
0.5	0.5



$\Pr(\sim S)$	$\Pr(S)$
0.5	0.5

		$\Pr(\sim C \mid B, S)$	$\Pr(C \mid B, S)$
$\sim B$	$\sim S$	1	0
B	$\sim S$	0	1
$\sim B$	S	0	1
B	S	0	1

Implementing BN Example #4

```
B = 1; S = 2; C = 3;  
dag = zeros(3,3);  
dag([B S], C)=1;  
ns = 2*ones(1,3);  
bnet = mk_bnet(dag, ns); % makes the BN structure
```

```
% populate CPTs
```

```
bnet.CPD{B} = tabular_CPD(bnet, B, 'CPT', [0.5 0.5]');  
bnet.CPD{S} = tabular_CPD(bnet, S, 'CPT', [0.5 0.5]');  
CPT = zeros(2,2,2);  
CPT(1,1,:) = [1 0];  
CPT(2,1,:) = [0 1];  
CPT(1,2,:) = [0 1];  
CPT(2,2,:) = [0 1];  
bnet.CPD{C} = tabular_CPD(bnet, C, 'CPT', CPT);
```

Inference with BN Example #4

```
% matlab convention: 1=false 2=true
```

```
engine = jtree_inf_engine(bnet);  
ev = cell(1,3);
```

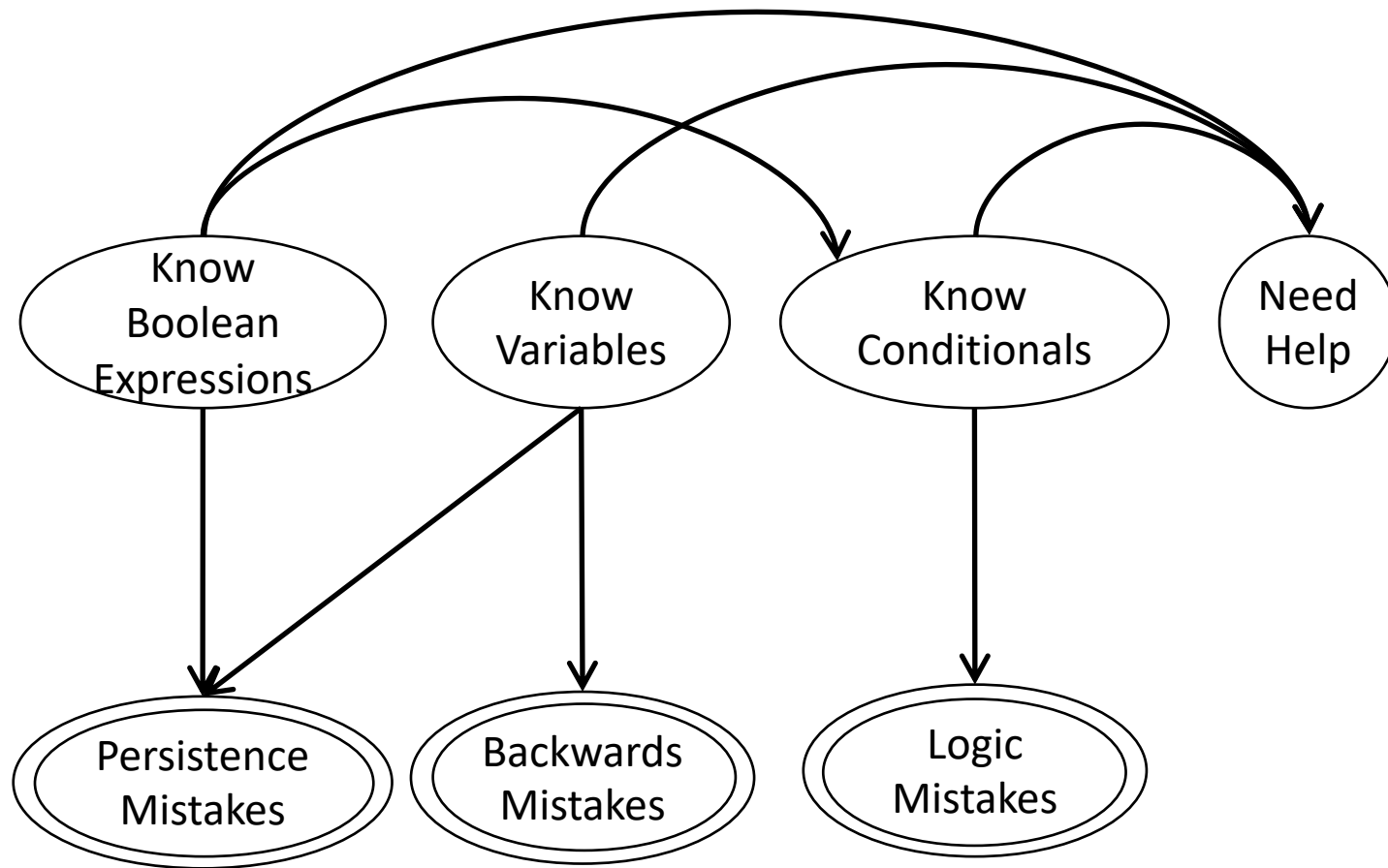
```
ev{C} = 2; % C is observed to be true  
engine = enter_evidence(engine, ev);  
m = marginal_nodes(engine, B);  
fprintf('P(B=true | C=true) = %5.3f\n', m.T(2))
```

```
ev{S} = 2; % C and S are now true  
engine = enter_evidence(engine, ev);  
m = marginal_nodes(engine, B);  
fprintf('P(B=true | C=true,S=true) = %5.3f\n', m.T(2))
```

The General Inference Task

- Given:
 - Query variables: \mathbf{X}
 - Evidence (observed) variables: $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}$
 - Unobserved variables: \mathbf{Y}
- Goal: To calculate useful information about the query variables
 - Updating belief of \mathbf{X} : $\Pr(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{e})$
 - Most probable explanation (MPE): $\mathbf{x}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{x}} \Pr(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{e})$

Which Task Is It?



How likely is the student to need help?

a) Belief update: $\Pr(\mathbf{X} | \mathbf{e})$

b) Most probable explanation: $\mathbf{x}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{x}} \Pr(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{e})$

The General Inference Task

- Given:
 - Query variables: \mathbf{X}
 - Evidence (observed) variables: $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}$
 - Unobserved variables: \mathbf{Y}
- Goal: To calculate useful information about the query variables
 - Updating **belief** of \mathbf{X} : $\Pr(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{e})$
 - **Most probable explanation (MPE)**: $\mathbf{x}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{x}} \Pr(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{e})$
- Recall inference via the full joint distribution:

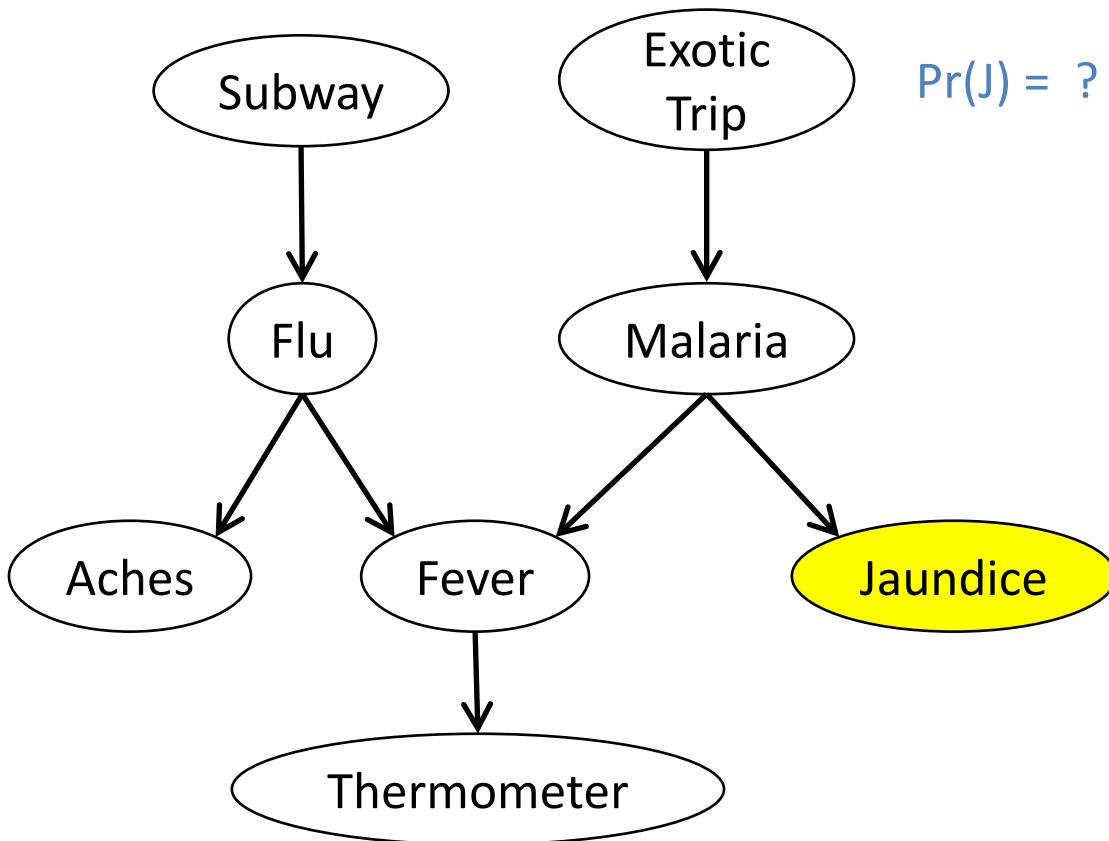
$$\Pr(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}) = \frac{\Pr(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{e})}{\Pr(\mathbf{e})} \propto \sum_{\mathbf{Y}} \Pr(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{e})$$

Inference Algorithms

- Purpose:
 - Understand the intuition behind the computation steps involved in an inference algorithm
- Need to know:
 - Given a problem, know how to formulate the query for inference task
 - Which are your query variable(s)?
 - Which are your evidence variable(s)?
 - Given a problem, know if you are doing belief update or MPE

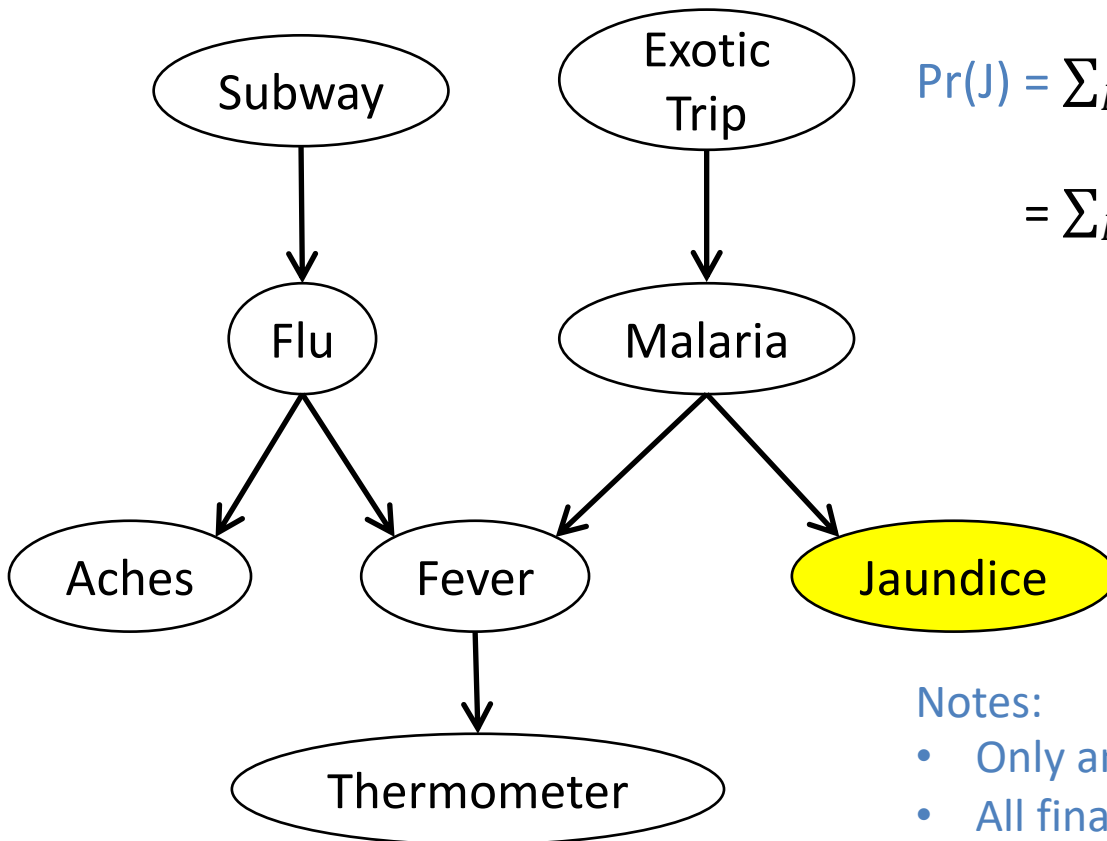
Simple Forward Inference

- Computing marginal requires simple forward “propagation” of probabilities



Simple Forward Inference

- Computing marginal requires simple forward “propagation” of probabilities



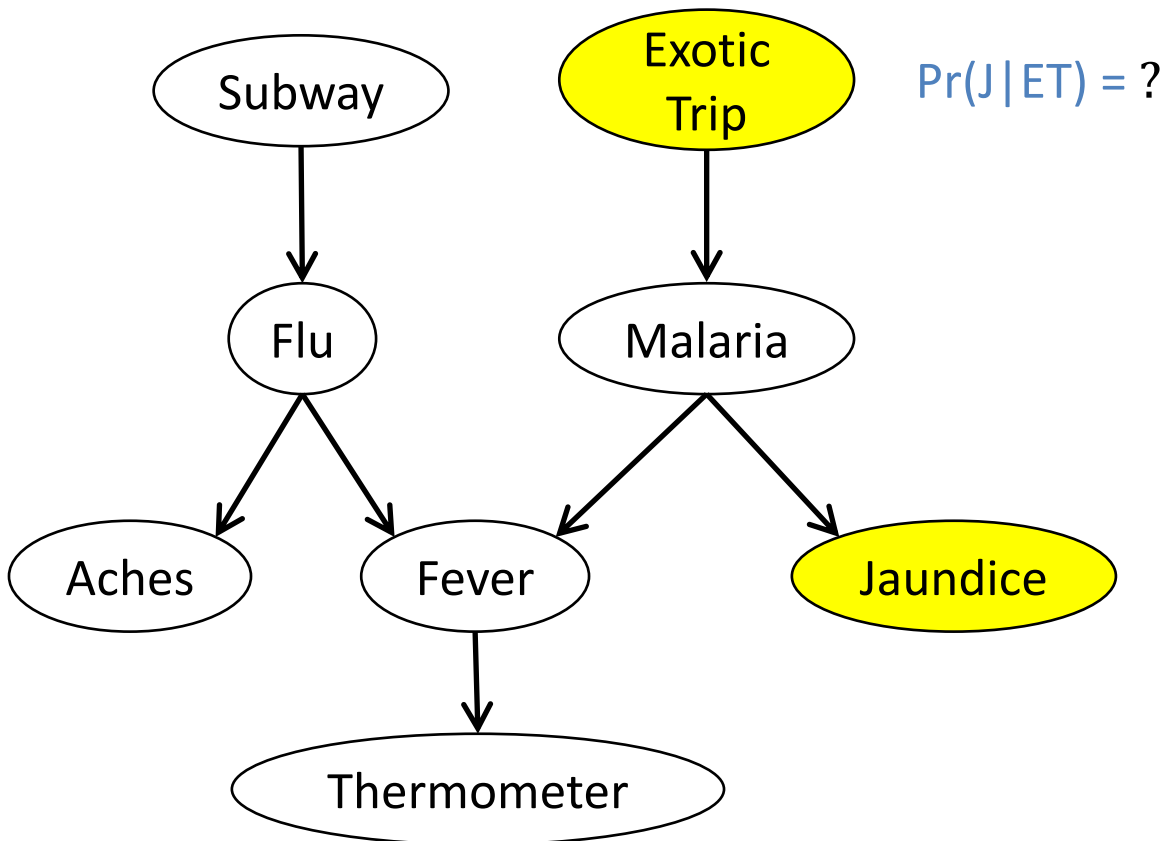
$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(J) &= \sum_{M,ET} \Pr(J|M) \Pr(M|ET) \Pr(ET) \\ &= \sum_M \Pr(J|M) \sum_{ET} \Pr(M|ET) \Pr(ET)\end{aligned}$$

Notes:

- Only ancestors of J considered
- All final terms are CPTs in the BN

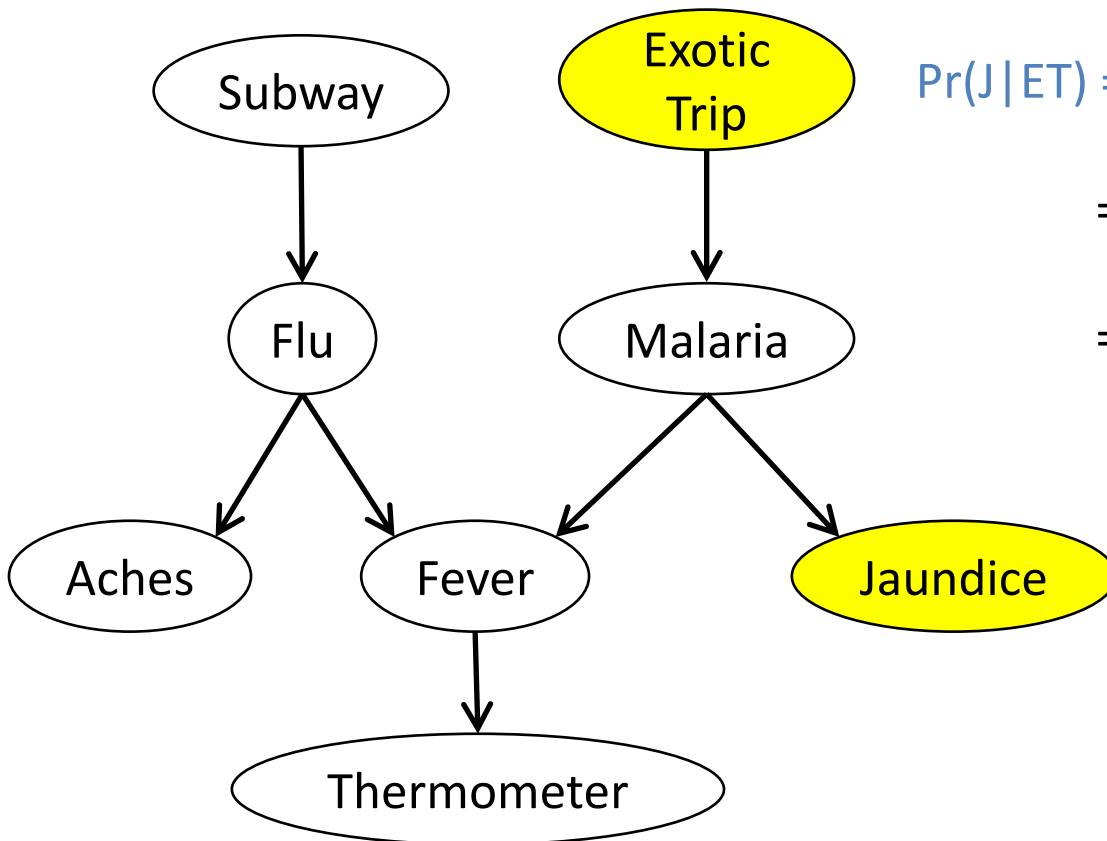
Simple Forward Inference

- Same idea applies when we have upstream evidence



Simple Forward Inference

- Same idea applies when we have upstream evidence



$$\Pr(J|ET) = \sum_M \Pr(J, M|ET)$$

$$= \sum_M \Pr(J|M, ET) \Pr(M|ET)$$

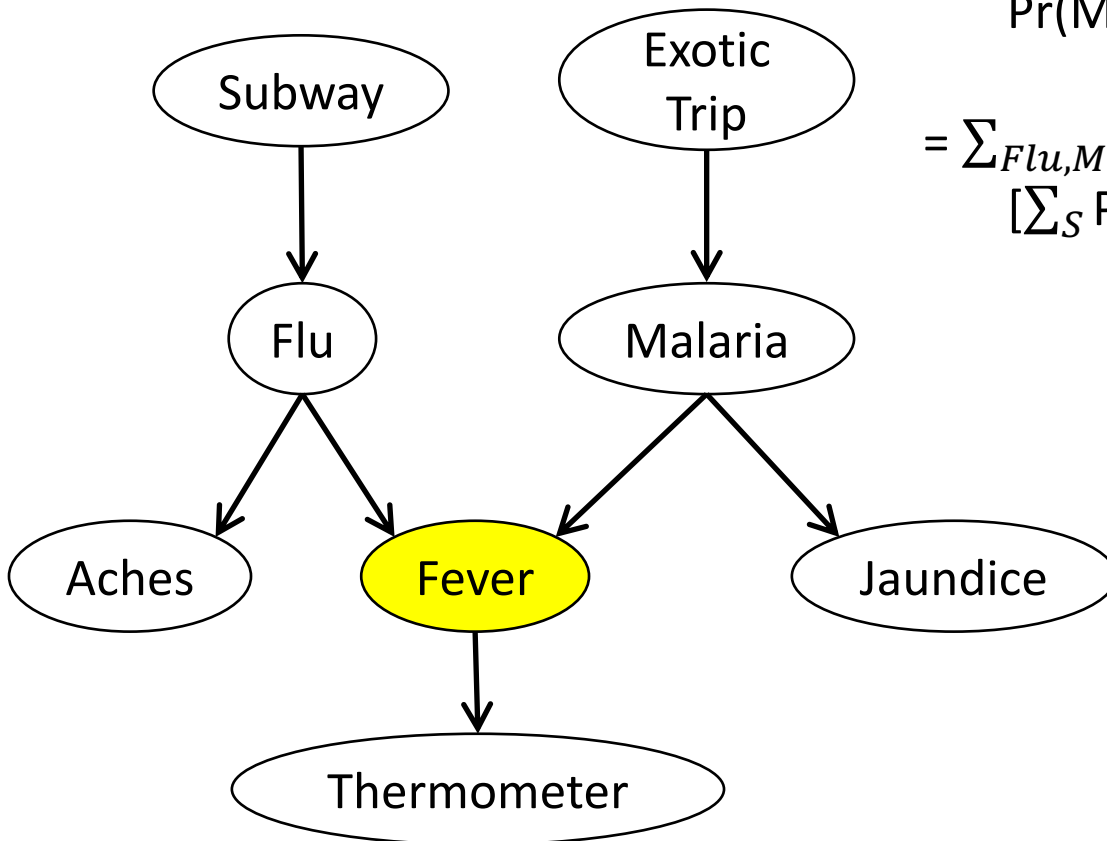
$$= \sum_M \Pr(J|M) \Pr(M|ET)$$

Simple Forward Inference

- Same idea applies with multiple parents

$$\Pr(\text{Fever}) = \sum_{Flu, M, S, ET} \Pr(\text{Fever} | \text{Flu}, M) \Pr(\text{Flu} | S) \Pr(M | ET) \Pr(S) \Pr(ET)$$

$$= \sum_{Flu, M} \Pr(\text{Fever} | \text{Flu}, M) [\sum_S \Pr(\text{Flu} | S) \Pr(S)] [\sum_{ET} \Pr(M | ET) \Pr(ET)]$$



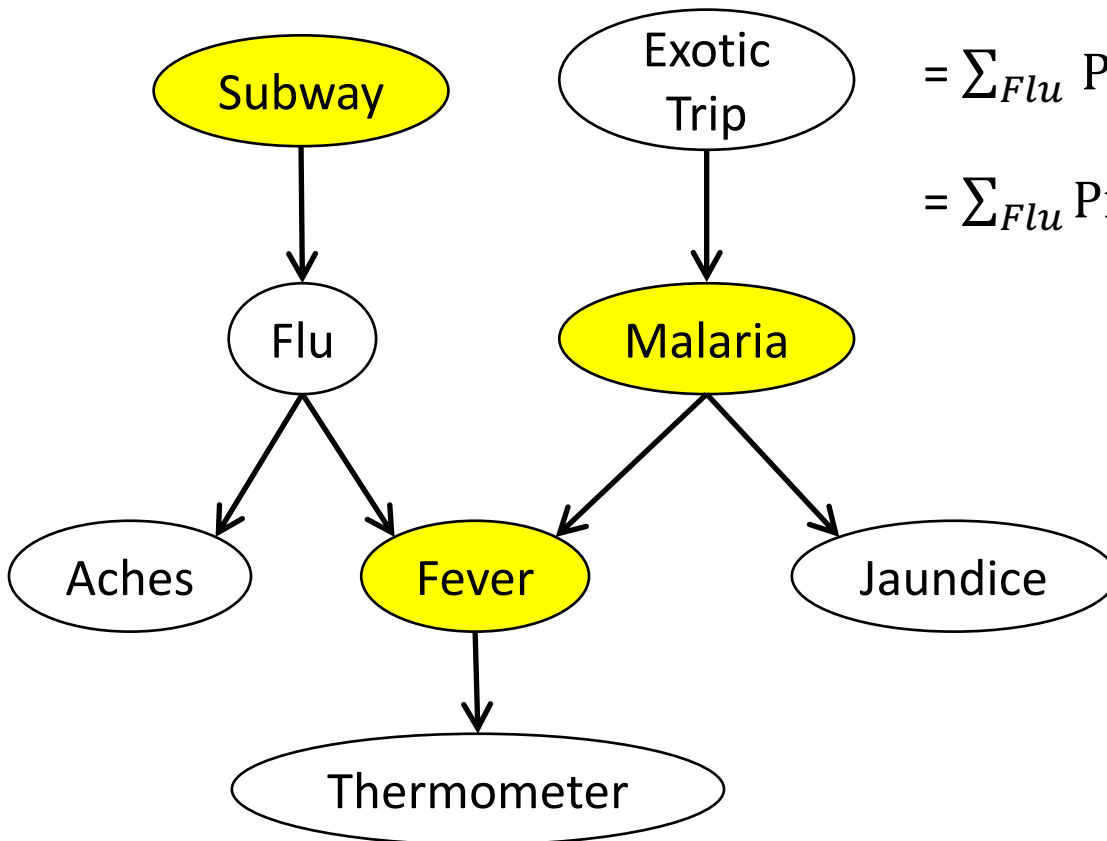
Simple Forward Inference

- Same idea applies with evidence

$$\Pr(\text{Fev} | s, \sim m) = \sum_{\text{Flu}} \Pr(\text{Fever}, \text{Flu} | s, \sim m)$$

$$= \sum_{\text{Flu}} \Pr(\text{Fever} | \text{Flu}, s, \sim m) \Pr(\text{Flu} | s, \sim m)$$

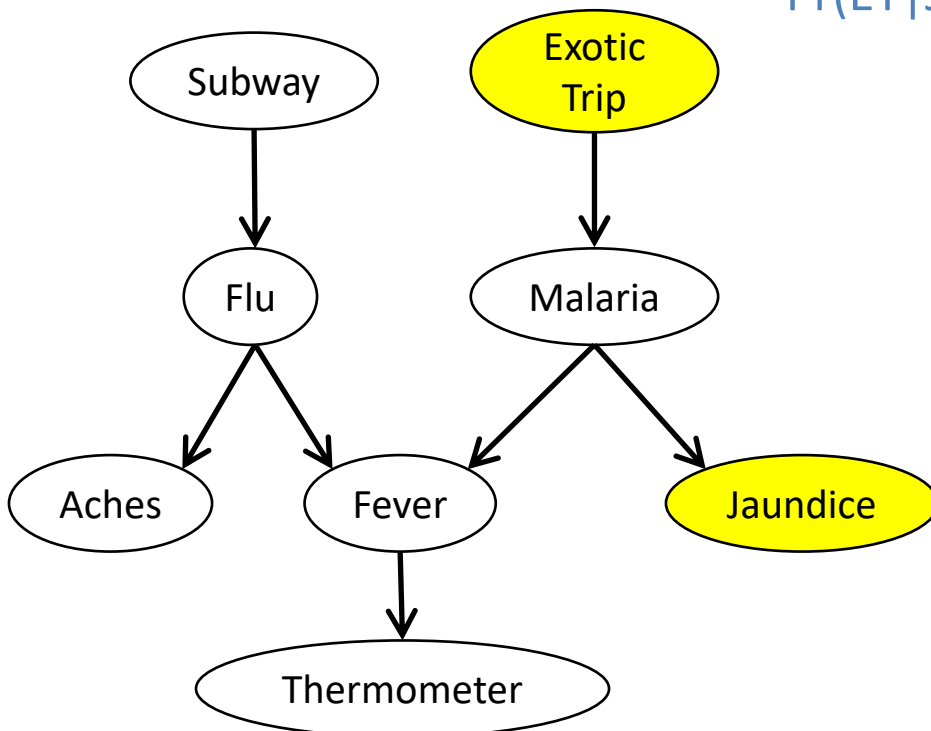
$$= \sum_{\text{Flu}} \Pr(\text{Fever} | \text{Flu}, \sim m) \Pr(\text{Flu} | s)$$



Simple Backward Inference

- When evidence is downstream of the query variable, we must reason “backwards”
 - Requires the use of Bayes rule

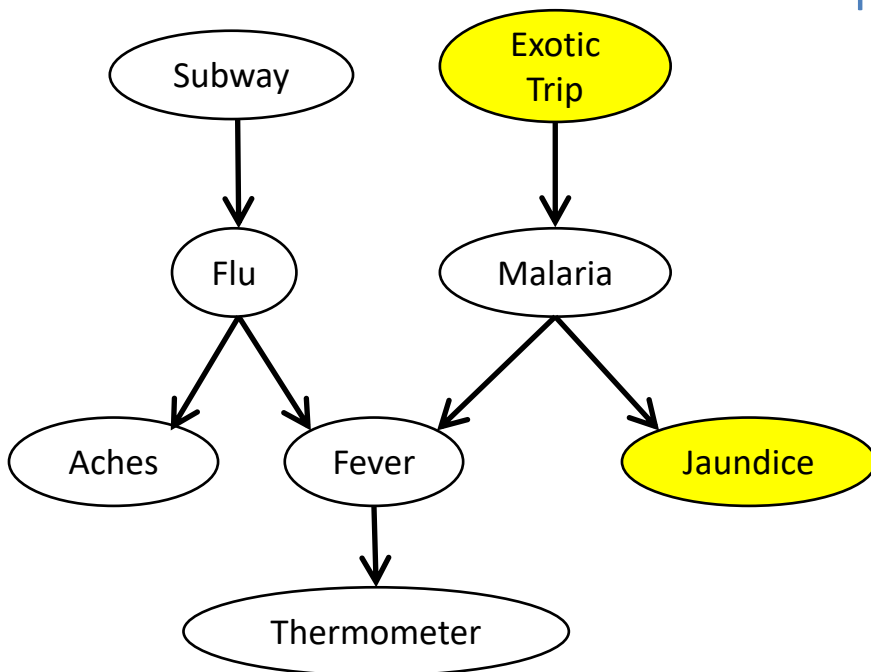
$$\Pr(ET|J) = ?$$



Simple Backward Inference

- When evidence is downstream of the query variable, we must reason “backwards”
 - Requires the use of Bayes rule

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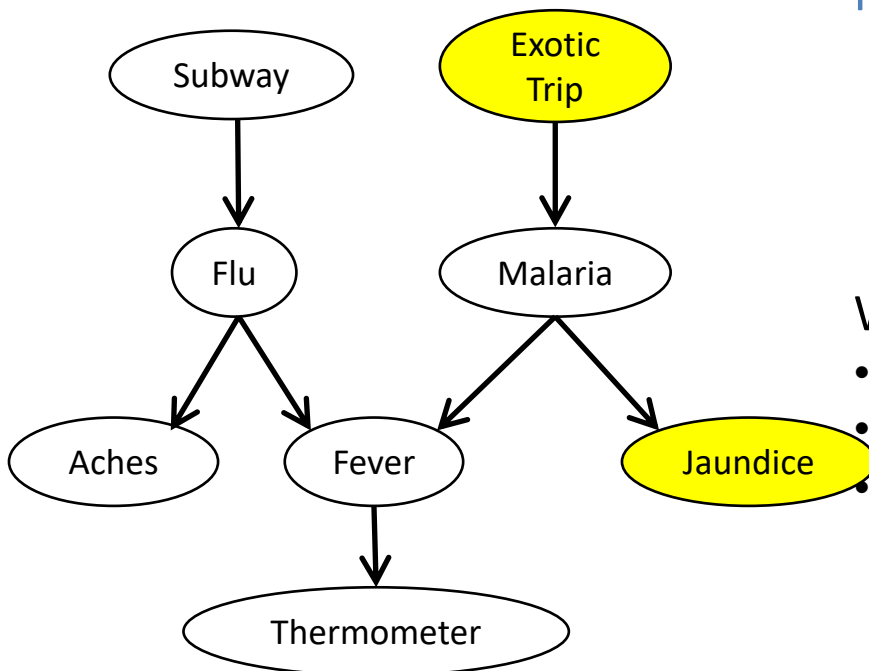
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Where $\alpha = 1/\Pr(j)$

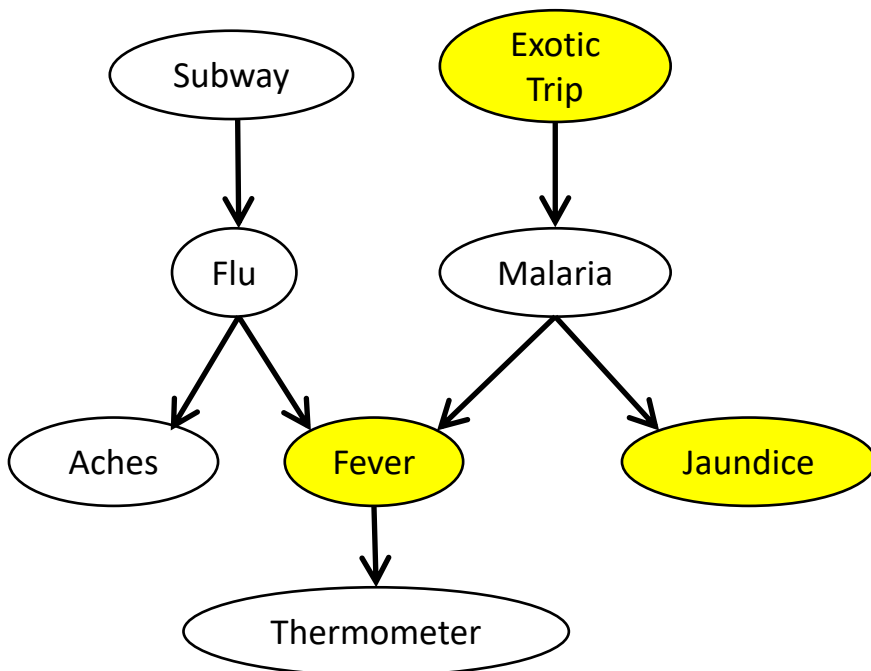
- Don't need to compute α
- Can compute $\Pr(ET|j)$ for each value of ET
- Add up terms $\Pr(j|ET)\Pr(ET)$ for all values of ET (they sum up to $\Pr(j)$)



Simple Backward Inference

- Same idea applies when several pieces of evidence appear downstream

$$\Pr(ET | j, fever) = ?$$



Simple Backward Inference

- Same idea applies when several pieces of evidence appear downstream

$$\Pr(ET | j, fever) = ?$$

$$= \alpha \Pr(j, fever | ET) \Pr(ET)$$

$$= \alpha \sum_{M, Flu, S} \Pr(j, fever, M, Flu, S | ET) \Pr(ET)$$

$$= \alpha \sum_{M, Flu, S} \Pr(j | fever, M, Flu, S, ET)$$

$$\Pr(fever | M, Flu, S, ET) \Pr(M | Flu, S, ET)$$

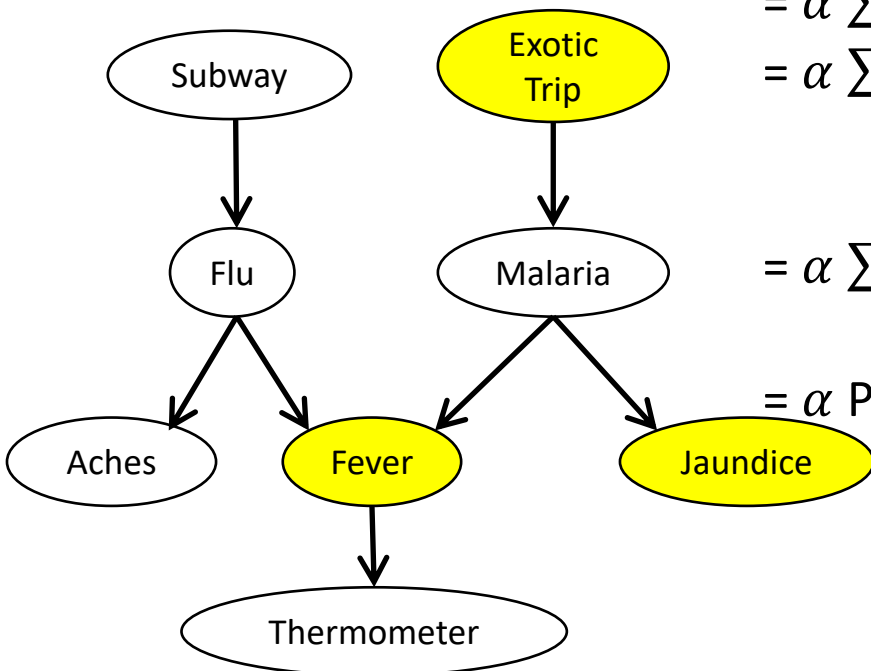
$$\Pr(Flu | S, ET) \Pr(S | ET) \Pr(ET)$$

$$= \alpha \sum_{M, Flu, S} \Pr(j | M) \Pr(fever | M, Flu) \Pr(M | ET)$$

$$\Pr(Flu | S) \Pr(S) \Pr(ET)$$

$$= \alpha \Pr(ET) \sum_M \Pr(j | M) \Pr(M | ET)$$

$$\sum_{Flu} \Pr(fever | M, Flu) \sum_S \Pr(Flu | S) \Pr(S)$$



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 - Push sums in as far as possible
 - Amount of work is bounded by size of largest term

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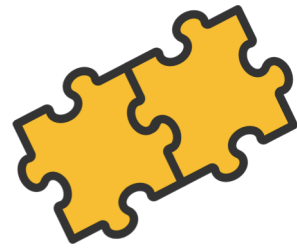
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- Approximation algorithms (sampling, loopy belief propagation, etc.)

Putting the Pieces Together



- How do we make decisions?
 - Consider each **action**
 - Estimate future **consequences**
 - Based on our **beliefs** of the world
- *Still need:* to model consequences to reflect how good or bad an outcome is
- Rational decision making suggests we take action with the best consequences based on our beliefs

Utility Theory

- Utilities enable us to quantify the degree of preference
 - Beyond simply ranking outcomes
- A **utility function**, $U:S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ associates a real-valued utility with each state
 - Actual values can be handcrafted or elicited/inferred
 - In economics, utilities typically correlate with monetary values
- U induces a preference ordering over S :
 s is preferred over t iff $U(s) > U(t)$
 - This preference ordering is reflexive and transitive

Expected Utility

- Under conditions of uncertainty, each decision d induces a distribution Pr_d over possible states
 - $\text{Pr}_d(s)$ is the probability of state s under decision d
- The **expected utility** of decision d is defined as:

$$EU(d) = \sum_{s \in S} \text{Pr}_d(s) U(s)$$

The MEU Principle

- The principle of **maximum expected utility** (MEU) states that the optimal decision under uncertainty is the one with the greatest expected utility
 - Principle adopted by **rational** agents
- Given a set of decisions D , a **solution** to a decision problem under uncertainty is any $d^* \in D$ s.t. $EU(d^*) \geq EU(d)$, for all $d \in D$
 - Trivial to compute for single-shot problems

Tutoring Example

- Consider an intelligent tutoring system designed to assist the user in programming
- Possible **actions** (intended to be helpful)?

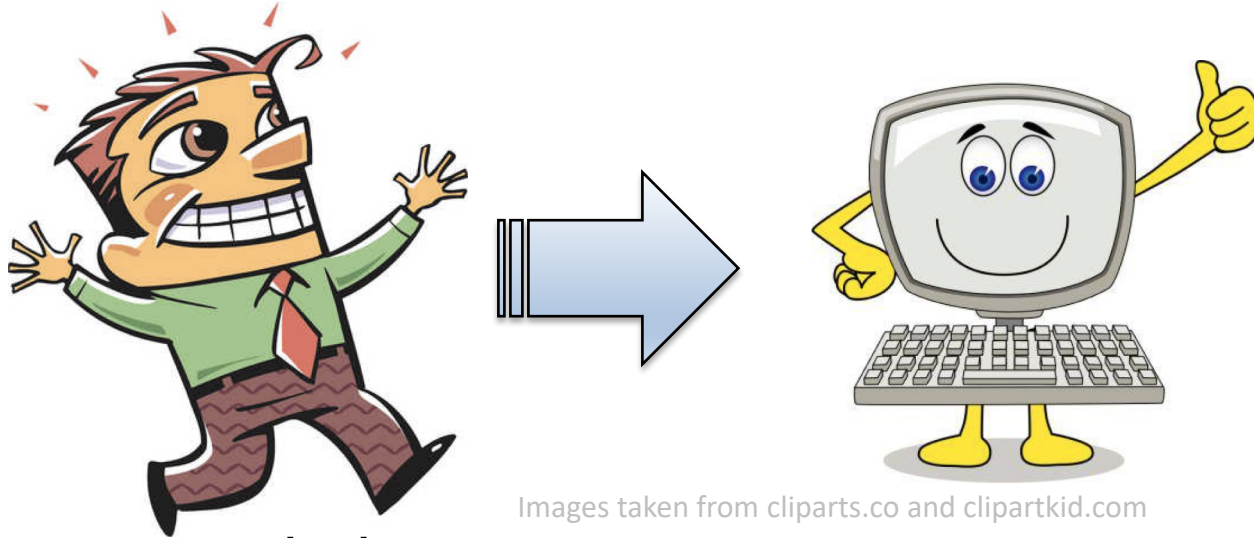
Tutoring Example

- Consider an intelligent tutoring system designed to assist the user in programming
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 - A1: Auto-complete the current programming statement
 - A2: Suggest several options for completing the current statement
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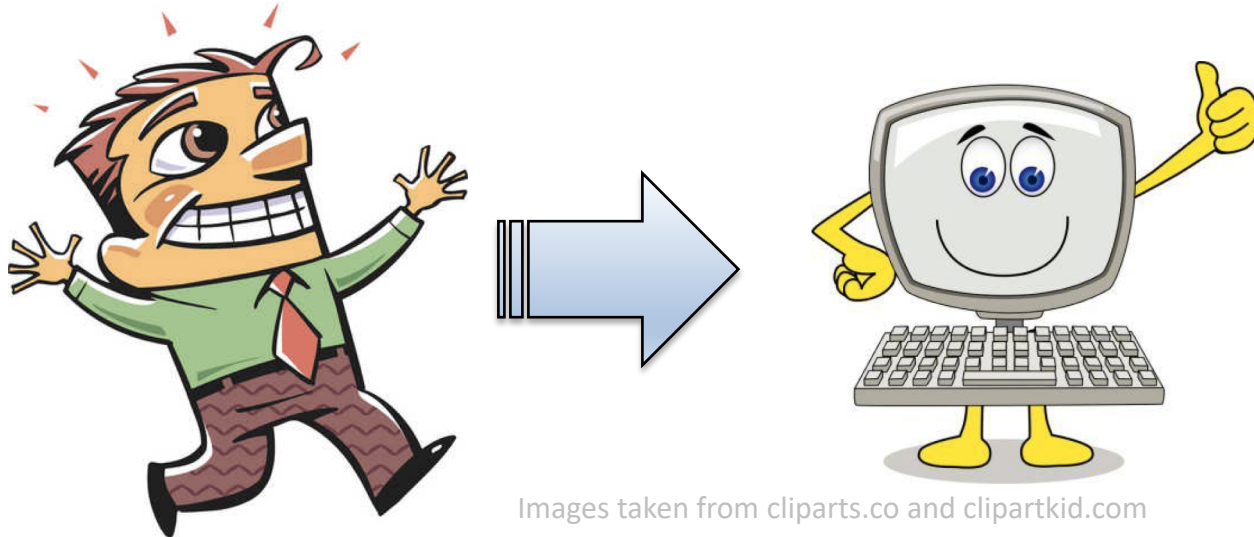
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 - A5: Keep observing the user (do nothing)
- Every action has **consequences** (expressed as **utilities**)
 - their impact depend on how much help the user needs right now

“Your Happiness is My Happiness”



- System acts to help user
- If user is happy, system is doing the right thing

“Your Happiness is My Happiness”



- System acts to help user
- If user is happy, system is doing the right thing
- In this case:
 - System makes actions to keep user happy
 - Utility function should reflect user’s preferences

Utility Function with User Variables

- System's decision problem:
 - Which is the best action to take to make user most happy?
 - With consideration to how much help the user needs right now


Utility Function with User Variables

- System's decision problem:
 - Which is the best action to take to make user most happy?
 - With consideration to how much help the user needs right now
- $EU(\text{Action}) = \text{Pr}(\text{NeedHelp}) \times U(\text{NeedHelp}, \text{Action})$

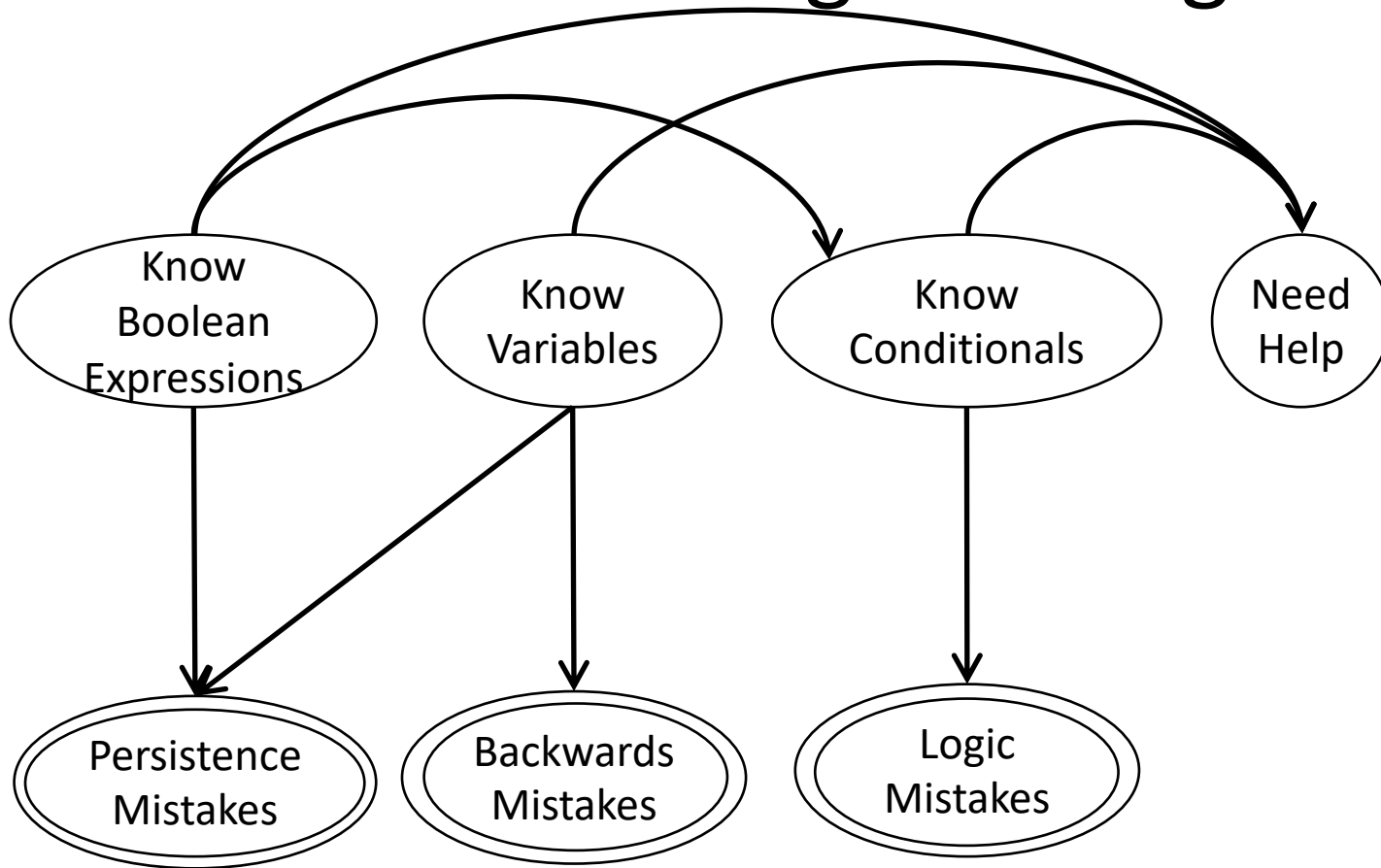
Comes from marginal distribution
computed from Bayes net



Comes from utility
defined/elicited and
stored separately



Recall Model for Programming Help



Compute $\Pr(\text{Help})$ using model

Defining $U(\text{NeedHelp}, \text{Action})$

- Define U in a fixed range e.g. $[0,100]$ or $[-5, +5]$
- For each scenario, assign real number to each action: auto-complete, suggest options, hint, ask, do nothing
- If NeedHelp is high,
 - Auto-complete, Suggest options, Hint are more appropriate
 - Note: Should also model quality of suggestion
- If NeedHelp is medium,
 - Ask and Hint is more appropriate
- If NeedHelp is low,
 - Do nothing is more appropriate
- Compute EU of each action and take the action with highest EU

Key Ideas

- Main concepts
 - Simple forward and backward inference involves basic probability manipulations and calculations
 - Rational decision making adopts the maximum expected utility principle
- Representation:
 - Prediction – given evidence upstream, predict likely outcome
 - Explanation – given evidence downstream, find plausible cause
 - Multiple causes compete to explain evidence away
 - Utility function $U:S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a mapping of states to reals
- Main tasks of interest:
 - Updating belief of \mathbf{X} : $\Pr(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{e})$
 - Most probable explanation: $\mathbf{x}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{x}} \Pr(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{e})$
 - Expected utility of a decision: $EU(d) = \sum_s \Pr_d(s)U(s)$
- Algorithm:
 - Most general exact inference algorithm is called clique (junction) inference

Further Readings

- D. Warner North. A Tutorial Introduction to Decision Theory. IEEE Transactions on Systems, Science, and Cybernetics, 4(3), 1968.
- S. French. Decision Theory. Halsted, 1986.
- S. Russell and P. Norvig. AI/MA: Chapter 16.